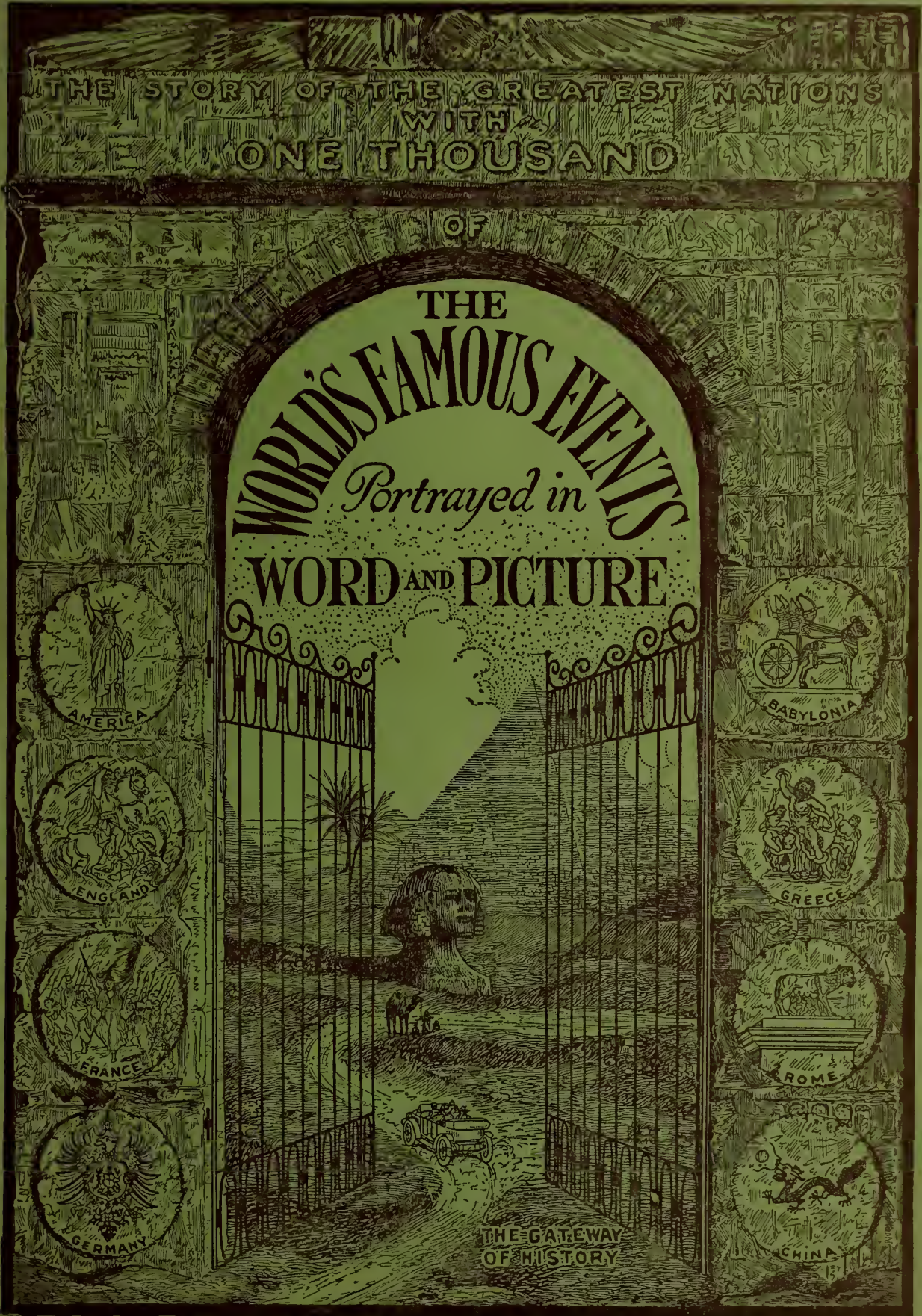


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NAPOLÉON'S SURRENDER

Napoleon's Surrender to the British at Bayona

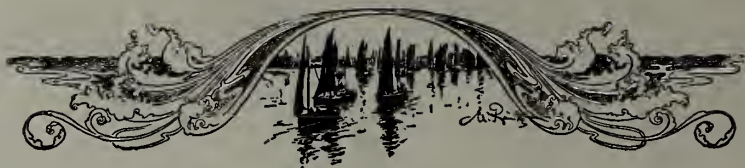
By the Hon. John Wilson Croker, Secretary of the Admiralty

DURING the late war, Napoleon was abandoned by his army, and the British army, under the command of the Duke of Wellington, entered the city of Bayona. Napoleon was then in a state of great distress, and he was forced to surrender to the British. The British then took possession of the city, and they were able to capture a large number of French soldiers. The British then sent Napoleon to England, where he was confined to the island of St. Helena. Napoleon was then in a state of great distress, and he was forced to surrender to the British. The British then took possession of the city, and they were able to capture a large number of French soldiers. The British then sent Napoleon to England, where he was confined to the island of St. Helena.

He was detained in England until the allies decided on his fate. Then he was exiled to the distant Atlantic island of St. Helena, and there carefully guarded until his death, which took place six years later, in 1821.

France was rejected Napoleon was again allowed by the allies to make peace, and again Louis XVIII ascended the throne. He was a stranger to his people, who neither loved nor feared him. Nor could he, on his side, give them any ground for the kind words he tried to say.





NAPOLEON'S SURRENDER

(Napoleon Places Himself under British Protection)

From the well-known painting by W. Q. Orchardson, of the British Royal Academy

DEFEATED at Waterloo, Napoleon was abandoned by his countrymen. They saw that further warfare was hopeless, and that Europe would make no terms with the dreaded Emperor. So Napoleon was again called on to abdicate, he even feared that the allies would take his life; he attempted to flee from France. Finding this impossible, he went on board the British frigate *Bellerophon* in the harbor of Rochefort, and surrendered himself to her captain, demanding English protection. He sent word to the prince-regent then ruling England, "I come like Themistocles to seat myself at the hearth of the British people. I place myself under the protection of its laws, claiming this protection from your royal highness as the most powerful, the most constant, and the most generous of my enemies."

He was detained in England until the allies decided on his fate. Then he was exiled to the distant Atlantic island of St. Helena, and there carefully guarded until his death, which took place six years later, in 1821.

France, having rejected Napoleon, was again allowed by the allies to make peace; and again Louis XVIII. ascended the throne. He was a stranger to his people, who neither loved nor trusted him. Nor could he, on his side, give them love or trust, for they had twice deserted him.







EUROPE IN 1815

(The Empire of Napoleon and the Reapportionment of Europe After His Overthrow)

Prepared for this series by an American map-maker, Justin Smith

A PICTURE of that noted Congress of Vienna which re-organized Europe after Napoleon's downfall, has been shown in Germany's story. But we here look rather to the changes which the cyclic career of the great conqueror had caused upon the map. At the culmination moment of his power, just before his disastrous Russian campaign of 1812, Napoleon had extended what he called the French Empire so that it covered the richest part of Italy, including Genoa, Florence and Rome. To the north it spread over Belgium, Holland and all northwestern Germany, reaching to the Bal- tic Sea. Moreover, beyond this "Empire," all the lesser states of Germany were united in what was called the "Confeder- ation of the Rhine," of which Napoleon was the head; and the remainder of Italy was apportioned into little kingdoms which he had conferred upon his relatives. All this land therefore was French territory ready to be incorporated in the vast empire which Napoleon planned as a revival of that of Charle- magne. The Polish "Duchy of Warsaw," was also upheld by French bayonets as a counterpoise to what was left of Prus- sia in the north; and the "Illyrian Provinces," shut Austria out from the Mediterranean. Spain, desolated and almost conquered, was also to be a province of the empire. The Congress of Vienna was gentle with conquered France, because the whole art of the diplomats was to put everything back where it had been before 1789.





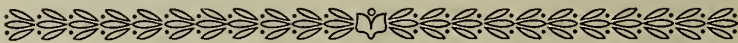
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THE REBELLION AGAINST CHARLES V.

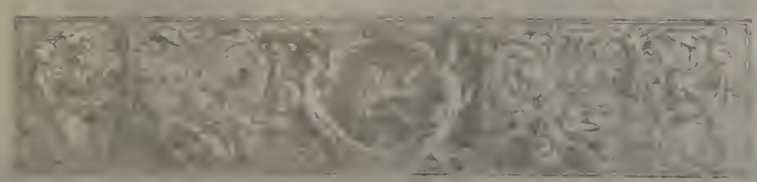
The History of the Rebellion against Charles V. by John G. Cooper.

Published by the Author, 1840.

LONDON: Printed by J. G. Cooper, 1840.

The rebellion against Charles V. was one of the most important events in the history of the Netherlands. It was a struggle for the rights of the provinces against the central authority of the Emperor. The rebellion was led by William of Orange, who was the first of the Orange-Nassau dynasty. The rebellion was successful in 1581, when the provinces of the Netherlands declared their independence from the Emperor. This event was a major step towards the formation of the Dutch Republic.

The rebellion was a result of the centralization of power by Charles V. He had inherited the Netherlands from his father, Philip the Fair, and he had sought to strengthen his control over the provinces. He had appointed a central government, the Council of Brabant, to administer the provinces. This centralization of power had led to the resentment of the provinces, who had long enjoyed a degree of autonomy. The rebellion was a direct result of this resentment.





THE REBELLION AGAINST CHARLES X

("The Day of Barricades": Paris Fights Again for Freedom in 1830)

From a painting by the contemporary Parisian artist, Georges Cain

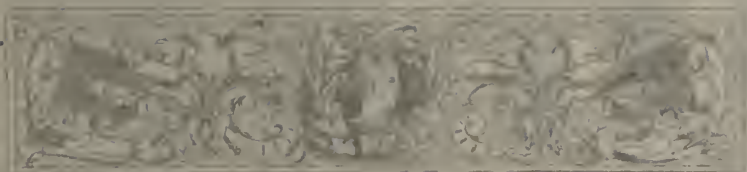
LOUIS XVIII, twice a fugitive from his country, received his throne a second time in 1815 from the allied sovereigns of Europe, and kept it till his death nine years later. Poor old Louis XVIII could never get used to ruling a France now long accustomed to self-government, and he died still trying to be an absolute king instead of a constitutional one. Then came his brother, Charles X, almost as old and even more obstinate than Louis. Charles tried what the French call a "coup d'etat," a "stroke of state." In 1830 he suddenly dismissed the Assembly, suppressed the opposition newspapers, and announced a much restricted constitution.

The people of Paris flew to arms. They built barricades across the streets. The soldiers of King Charles marched unwillingly against them. Yet the troops, officered by old aristocrats, did attack the barricades, and there were three days of street fighting in which many were killed. Then the soldiers refused further obedience to their officers. King Charles, having no desire for the fate of Louis XVI, fled from the country, and France was without a government.

A second republic would have meant a war against all Europe. So, under the lead of America's old friend, Lafayette, a new monarchy was formed under an elected king, a distant relative of the old royal house, King Louis Philippe.







PARIS REFUSES 'MOTHER FOURBON KING

The Illinois Court of Probate is composed of the following members:





PARIS REFUSES ANOTHER BOURBON KING
(The Little Count of Paris is Presented by His Mother to the Assembly, but
Rejected as King)

By the contemporary French artist, F. Haldof

LOUIS PHILIPPE ruled over France for eighteen years; but his people grew ever more anxious for a republic. All over Europe the commons were asserting themselves against the ancient despotisms, and when 1848 arrived the kings of other countries were facing so many troubles at home they could no longer uphold monarchy in France. The republicans there grew ever more demonstrative; the king ventured some slight measures of restraint, and the people began another ominous barricading of the streets. Louis Philippe very sensibly refused to fight; he resigned his kingship.

So here was France again without a government. The mother of the next royal heir, the Count of Paris, hastily brought forward her son, or rather her two little sons, and offered the elder to the Assembly as their rightful king, ready to rule under whatever law they chose. The presiding officer placed before the Assembly a motion for the little Count of Paris's election, which would have led to another monarchy. But the Parisians, who had been building barricades against Louis Philippe, now burst into the Assembly and stood listening to the discussion with pikes and muskets in their hands. All the legislators knew what they wanted—a republic. So the Count of Paris was passed over, and a republic proclaimed. This was the "Second French Republic."







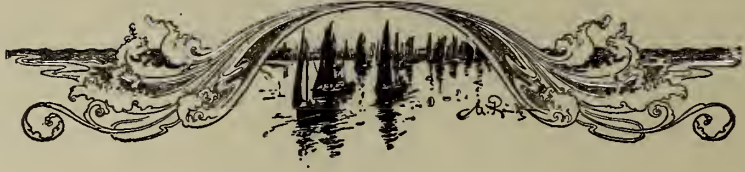
LOUIS NAPOLEON AT BOULOGNE

Theophylus of the Green / Napoleon Attempts an Uprising and is Imprisoned

By Louis Napoleon / with a preface by the author

THE following narrative is a true and faithful account of the events which took place at Boulogne during the month of July, 1830, when Louis Napoleon, then Prince of the Netherlands, attempted to seize the French throne. The author, who was present at the time, has endeavored to give a full and accurate description of the proceedings, and to show the motives and feelings of the various parties concerned. The narrative is divided into two parts: the first part describes the preparations for the expedition, and the second part describes the actual attempt and its consequences. The author has endeavored to be as impartial as possible, and to give a full and accurate account of the facts as they occurred.





LOUIS NAPOLEON AT BOULOGNE

(The Nephew of the Great Napoleon Attempts an Uprising and is Imprisoned)

By Carl Deutsch, a contemporary German artist

EVEN a republic must have a head, and the man elected by all Frenchmen to be the head of their suddenly created republic of 1848 was that very remarkable man Louis Bonaparte, better known as Napoleon III.

Louis Bonaparte, or Louis Napoleon, as he called himself, passed a life of marvelous vicissitudes. Born as the son of a king when Napoleon I had raised all his family to royal rank, young Louis had lost everything in 1815 and become an exile from France. Wherever any people had rebelled against oppression, Louis had joined them, fighting as a champion of liberty. Perhaps even then he recognized the force of the republican movement upon the crest of which he was to mount. Twice during Louis Philippe's reign, Louis Napoleon tried to rouse a republican rebellion in France. On the second occasion he had landed with a few comrades at Boulogne; but no one had rallied to his aid, and a military force had at very small cost of life captured him and his followers. For years after that, he was held a captive in France, but at length escaped from prison and again fled the country.

With the announcement of the Republic of 1848 he returned. His chance had come, and he recognized it. Was he not the avowed champion of freedom, and the legitimate heir of France's greatest leader. He offered himself as a candidate for president and was elected by an almost unanimous vote.







LOUIS NAPOLEON COUP D'ETAT

Illustration of the Coup d'Etat of Louis Napoleon, 1851, by J. L. Meunier.

A Frenchman's View of the Coup d'Etat of 1851.

Paris, 1851. Louis Napoleon, the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, has just been elected President of the Republic. He is a man of great energy and ambition, and he is determined to make himself the master of France. He has just won the election by a large majority, and he is now in a position to carry out his plans. He has already taken several steps towards the consolidation of his power, and he is now preparing to take the final step. He is about to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, and to appoint a new assembly. This is a bold move, and it is one that has caused much controversy. But Louis Napoleon is not a man who is easily deterred. He is a man who is determined to achieve his goals, and he is willing to take any step that is necessary to achieve them. He is now in a position to do so, and he is about to do it.

The coup d'etat of 1851 was a turning point in French history. It marked the end of the Second Republic, and the beginning of the Second Empire. Louis Napoleon, who was then known as Louis Bonaparte, had just been elected President of the Republic. He was a man of great energy and ambition, and he was determined to make himself the master of France. He had just won the election by a large majority, and he was now in a position to carry out his plans. He had already taken several steps towards the consolidation of his power, and he was now preparing to take the final step. He was about to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, and to appoint a new assembly. This was a bold move, and it was one that had caused much controversy. But Louis Napoleon was not a man who was easily deterred. He was a man who was determined to achieve his goals, and he was willing to take any step that was necessary to achieve them. He was now in a position to do so, and he was about to do it.

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LOUIS NAPOLEON'S COUP D'ÉTAT

(Napoleon as President Faces a "Day of Barricades" and Becomes Emperor)

From a lithograph of the time by G. Bartsch

PERHAPS Louis Napoleon on the day of his election as president in 1848 was already planning toward the day when he, too, should be as his mighty uncle had been, an emperor. More probably his chances opened before him step by step. For three years he quarreled with his Assembly, while seeking always the favor of his people. Then in 1851 he made his celebrated "coup d'état." He suddenly arrested most of the members of the Assembly, its leaders were secretly expelled from the country; and the president assumed the arbitrary power of a dictator. He announced that the Assembly had acted traitorously, and that he as the champion of liberty ought to be kept in power for ten years to come. Upon this extraordinary proposition he declared that France was to cast a universal vote.

At this high-handed overriding of the constitution, Paris rushed again to its barricades. But memories of the great Napoleon prevailed. Perhaps France might again rule the world. The barricades were only defended half-heartedly; the soldiers advanced against them resolutely. Then Louis Napoleon himself rode through the streets, summoning the people to vote instead of fight. The boldness with which he advanced amid the barricades won the mob in his favor.

The vote he had called for was almost unanimous in upholding him. So he proposed another vote: Should he assume the rank and title of hereditary emperor? This proposition was also carried, and he was crowned as Napoleon III.





WEISSLEINBURG

the First Battle of the Franco-Prussian War)

20. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 1929, 92, 1009.





WEISSENBURG

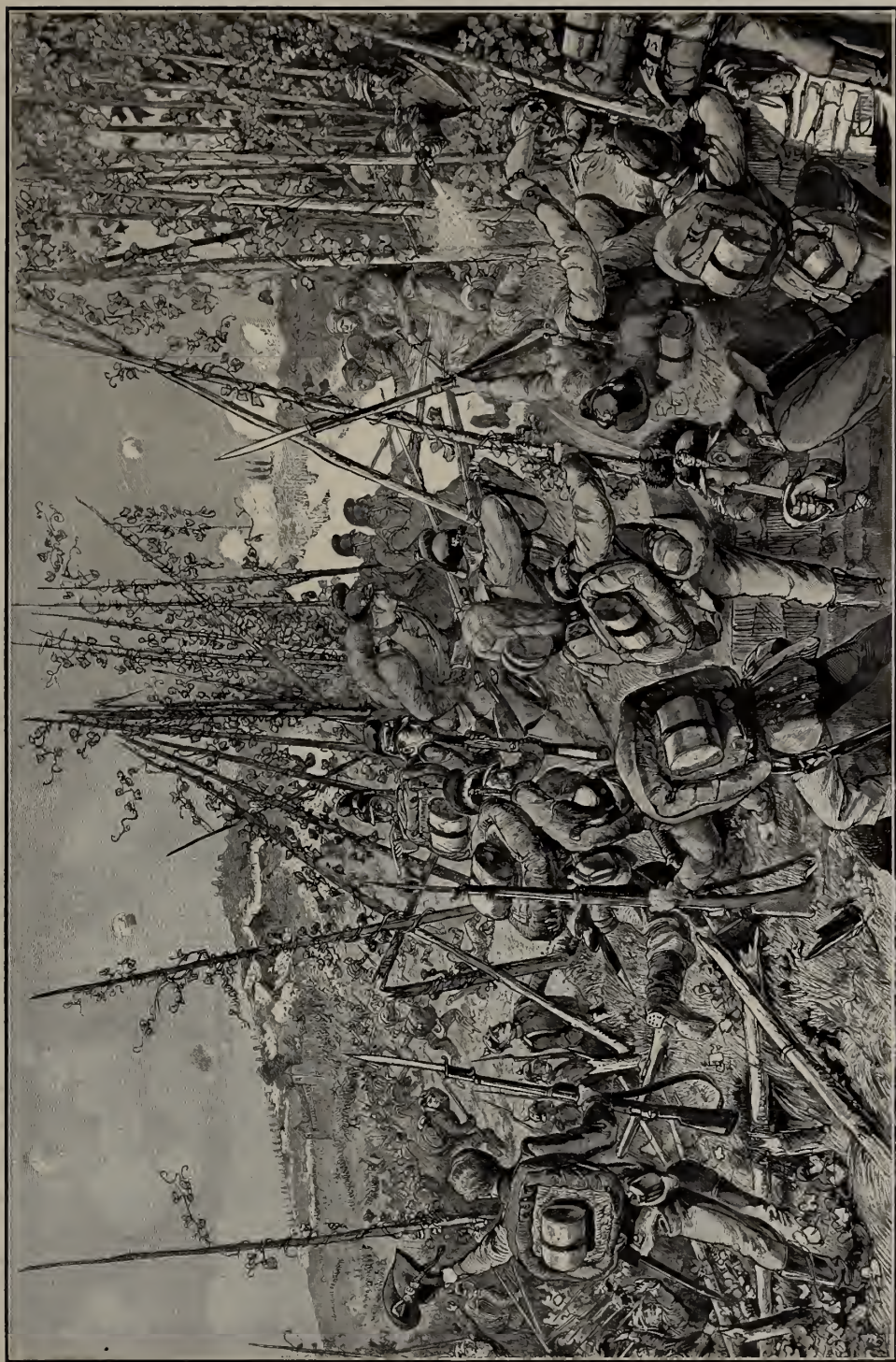
(The Defeat of the French in the First Battle of the Franco-Prussian War)

From a sketch at the time by Ant. Pressler

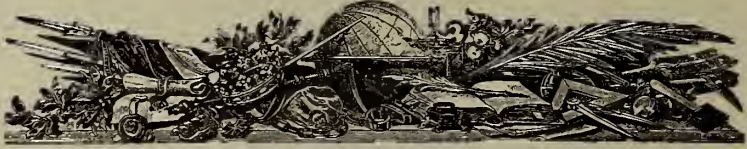
FOR twenty years Napoleon III was the most powerful sovereign of Europe; for he had behind him a united people, while other continental monarchs were ruling in defiance of their subjects, holding them down by force. The French were intensely proud of this "Second Empire" and its influence. They fondly called their monarch "the dictator of Europe." To some extent he really was so, until a far abler statesman than he, the Prussian chancellor Bismarck, took control of the continental world. In the diplomatic negotiations which accompanied Prussia's victory over Austria in 1866, France was outwitted and defied, and everybody knew it. French vanity was hurt, France grew ashamed of its boastful emperor, and Napoleon knew that to remain in power he must fight Prussia and humble her. This led to his war against her in 1870.

The emperor had grown old and careless; the subordinates whom he had put in power assured him that everything was in readiness for war. As a matter of fact everything was hopelessly unready. Neither had France that enormous advantage she had possessed under the first Napoleon in the frenzied patriotism of her newly liberated people. She encountered in the German troops an enthusiasm and devotion equal to her own. The very first battle of the war, Weissenburg, revealed all the deficiencies of Napoleon's régime. Afterward he was defeated repeatedly, and finally made prisoner by the conquering Prussians.





THE ALBERT MORGAN



THE APPEAL TO FRANCE

(Gambetta in 1870 Marshals the French Provinces to the Support of Paris)

From a newspaper picture of the period

WHEN Napoleon III surrendered to the Prussians, France did not feel that it was she herself who had been defeated. It was only Napoleon's régime with its folly and fraud and incompetence which had been overthrown. The people of Paris declared him deposed, and established anew a republican government. This, the "Third French Republic," continues to be the government of France to-day. In its very birth it proved the enormous vitality of the French people. Bismarck had supposed the land conquered, and was arranging a peace treaty with Napoleon. Now he found that treaty worthless. The new government sent him word that they desired peace, but would not yield an inch of French territory. The German troops advanced and besieged Paris.

The chief champion of the new republic was a fervid young orator, Leon Gambetta. He escaped from beleaguered Paris in a balloon, and journeyed through all the southern provinces, entreating the people to rally to the defense of France. Of course there was no regular government. There had been no chance to elect one, with the German troops spreading over the land and taking possession of it. So the new republic had no president and no assembly. Yet Gambetta did not appeal to patriotism in vain. Everywhere the people formed local governments of their own, and everywhere these organizations threw themselves heart and soul into the work of raising armies to save France.



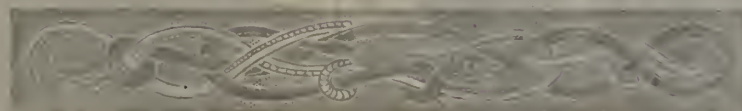




CHAMPION

(The French troops from Paris to break through the German lines)

1. The first part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation





CHAMPIGNY

(The French Troops from Paris Attempt to Break Through the Besieging Germans)

From a newspaper picture of the period

THE main event of this second part of the Franco-German war was the siege of Paris. Four hundred thousand hastily gathered, ill-armed troops held the city against half a million eager, well-trained, well-equipped Germans. From the French provinces Gambetta gathered army after army of recruits and sent them to aid the Parisians. But none of these raw French fighters could match their steadfast and efficient enemies. The armies outside Paris could not break in; the army inside could not break out.

The most notable effort to disrupt the German lines was in November of 1870. Fifty thousand troops from Paris fought their way outward from the capital for three days, and advanced as far as Champigny. But the troops from the provinces were not there to meet them, and slowly the entire German army had massed against them. Thousands of Frenchmen fell like heroes in the streets of Champigny; the rest were driven back.

After that disastrous sally, Paris settled down to sullen endurance, and in the following January surrendered. The Germans entered the city in triumphal procession; and the German Empire of to-day had its birth in the enthusiasm which Bismarck aroused among Germans by thus crushing the Empire of France.







FRANCIS AGONY





FRANCE'S AGONY

(The Conference in Which Bismarck Extorted His Own Terms of Peace From the French President, Thiers)

By A. von Wagner, a contemporary German artist

AS France had no authorized government which could make a treaty of peace with Germany, the Germans waited, holding possession of the land, while an election was held. The noted French statesman and historian Thiers, an old man of seventy, was elected president by his despairing countrymen, and was commissioned to arrange with Bismarck what terms he could.

The head of the provisional government of Paris, the man who had led the city in its brave defense against the German armies was Jules Favre, an able lawyer. He now united with Thiers in conducting the negotiations with Bismarck; or rather he and Thiers listened to the stern Prussian's ultimatum; for they could only accept what he dictated.

To the two patriots the terms seemed crushingly severe. Thiers in particular was so overwhelmed he could scarcely continue the negotiations. But to the rest of the world, considering the completeness of France's overthrow, the demands of Germany seemed moderate. She took from France the territory of Alsace-Lorraine; and she received an indemnity of a billion dollars, retaining possession of some fortresses till this was paid. So rich a land is France that under the guidance of President Thiers she paid the whole of her ransom within three years. Thiers was honored with the title, "The Liberator of the Territory."





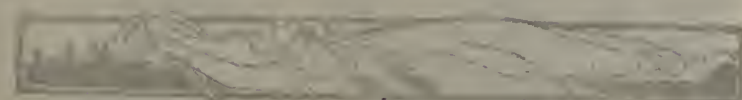


THE
JOURNAL OF THE
ROYAL ANTHROPOLOGICAL INSTITUTE
OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
VOLUME XX. PART I. 1890.

N
O. 1. 1890. The first part of the volume contains the following papers:—
1. On the question of the origin of the human race, by Prof. Huxley.
2. On the question of the origin of the human race, by Prof. Huxley.
3. On the question of the origin of the human race, by Prof. Huxley.
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"THE COMMUNE"

(The Communists Seize Paris and Tear Down the Statue of Napoleon I)

From a sketch by the contemporary Parisian artist, B. Castelli

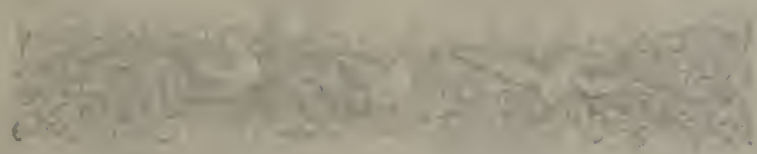
NO sooner had the German troops withdrawn from Paris in 1871, than the unhappy city was compelled to face another tragic horror. During the war there had gradually grown up among the poorer Parisians a belief in communal government. That is, they wanted each little community to govern itself and make its own laws, heedless of those of any other community. When the Germans left Paris, these communists seized the city and formed a government of their own. Some of them were misguided enthusiasts; but most of those who rallied to the aid of this mad "commune" were thieves and rioters eager only for plunder.

Paris remained in their possession for months. They were months of crime, of horror, and of destruction. Many of the fairest monuments of the city were destroyed. The real communists were specially bitter against Napoleon as a man of blood, so they tore down the tall pillar on the summit of which his statue stood. When at length the troops gathered by the regular government began to fight their way into Paris street by street, the rioters went mad. They forced every one to join their ranks and fight the troops. They murdered all who disobeyed them. They set fire to Paris in a hundred places, and sought to drag the city down in their own ruin.

At length the troops of the Republic recaptured the city. Paris has since been restored, repaired and beautified; but never will she forget the awful days of the commune.







CHURCH NOTES IN FRANCE

There is a little Church in France, from which I have been writing to the Editor.

The Church is in the town of St. Omer, in the Department of the Nord. It is a small town, and the Church is a small one. It is a simple building, and the interior is plain. The altar is of wood, and the pulpit is of stone. The organ is of iron, and the bells are of brass.

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CHURCH RIOTS IN FRANCE

(The Catholic Clergy Expelled From Their Schools and Churches by the Police)

From a sketch made on the spot by F. Matanis

THE career of this "Third French Republic" has been peaceful. Gradually law and government have grown strong in France, and there have been no more armed revolutions. More than forty years of peace have placed France once more among the richest and most powerful countries of the world.

A clear evidence of the increasing political wisdom and power of self-restraint that self-government has taught the French, has been shown in their moderate handling of the long struggle between the state and the Catholic Church, a conflict that would once have been fought out with arms. The government of France has for more than a dozen years been in the hands of the radical party. This party insisted that Catholic Church property must be held like any other property, subject to government control. The resulting dispute reached in 1902 a point where the government expelled the Catholic clergy by force from some of the Catholic schools. Later the churches themselves were seized by the government. France holds millions of devout Catholics but beyond some very mild rioting the police officials met no resistance. Since 1906 the government has sought to compensate the Catholics for their losses and replace their property, so far as the law permits, under their control. Both sides have shown genuine forbearance.







THE LAST STAND OF BOURBAKI'S RECRUITS

Chapter XCIX

THE THIRD REPUBLIC AND ITS STRUGGLE AGAINST GERMANY



HE republic proclaimed in Paris, September 4, 1870, amid the gloom and terror caused by Napoleon's surrender, is the present government of the country. At first it had neither constitution nor president. Indeed, it had no legal authorities whatsoever.

The feeble Assembly which had helped Napoleon III. to govern, felt itself out of place amid the tumult that followed upon his downfall. One of its few members who really represented the people, was Jules Favre. It was at his demand and under the menace of a gathering mob, that the Assembly declared France a Republic. Then most of its members hastened to disappear into the oblivion from which they had come.

The Parisians were left to form a government of their own. Favre and a few other leaders declared themselves temporarily the "Government for the National Defence," and began arranging for the election in October of a regular Assembly, to be truly representative of the nation. This election was prevented by the advance of the German armies; and the self-constituted "Government for the National Defence" continued to rule France until the war was over.

In energy and resource its members proved themselves not inferior to the Jacobins of 1792. Their lack of legal authority to enforce any command, made their work infinitely difficult; and their patience, honesty, and devotion

to France deserve all our praise. Chief among them were M. (*Monsieur*) Favre, a lawyer of ability and proven patriotism, and Leon Gambetta, a fervid, hot-headed young orator scarce thirty-two. They offered the renowned statesman and former prime minister, M. Thiers, a place among them, but he declined the dangerous honor.

The first effort of the Republicans was to restore peace. They asserted that, with them, Germany had no cause for quarrel, that the senseless dispute had vanished with the Empire which originated it. They were willing to compensate Germany for the expense she had been under, would pay her a heavy indemnity, but, as Favre put it, "Not a foot of our territory! Not a stone of our fortresses!" If the war were forced upon them, they would fight to the utmost.

Bismarck was by no means willing to recognize this new government. He would have much preferred dealing with the Empire, whose chief was in his hands. When Favre came to negotiate, Bismarck treated him with neglect and harshness. A great outcry had already risen in victorious Germany for the restoration of her ancient borders, the return of the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, which had been wrested from her in Louis XIV.'s time, two centuries before. Bismarck made this demand the first condition of peace. All France upheld Favre in his indignant refusal.

So the war continued, under conditions directly reversed from its beginning. Defeated France sought only peace. It was triumphant Germany that now demanded concessions and surrenders of territory. There were two ways by which the country might be saved,—by finding allies among the other nations, or through the uprising of the whole united people to destroy the Germans. Both methods were attempted. M. Thiers, upon his own authority and that of the provisional government, made the round of the capitals of Europe in quest of alliances upon any terms. But none of the Powers cared to treat with an ambassador of such doubtful legality, or to involve themselves in a cause which seemed already lost.

Meanwhile the utmost efforts were put forth to rouse the French people of the provinces. These had enthusiastically accepted the new Republic. Indeed, many of the provincial cities had themselves proclaimed its existence, without waiting for news from the capital. Yet now they held back doubtfully. They were jealous of the pretensions of the Paris government. They dreaded the excesses of the Paris mob.

The position of military affairs was briefly this. Several French fortresses along the eastern frontier still held out, notably Strasburg; but these were compelled to surrender one by one. The only considerable French army of regular troops that remained, was under Marshal Bazaine shut up in Metz. It

consisted of nearly two hundred thousand men, and about three hundred thousand Germans surrounded it; while a second German army, almost equal to the first, marched toward Paris.

General Trochu was made military commander of the capital, and it was hastily prepared to resist either an assault or a siege. Around the city stretched a gigantic wall which King Louis Philippe had planned and Napoleon III. had built. It was now nearly completed, thirty feet in height, and protected at every angle by huge forts and heavy guns. The defenses were strengthened as much as possible, and provisions were gathered from all quarters. Fugitives from the surrounding villages flocked into the city, swelling its total population to nearly two and a half millions of excited and determined people.

From among these nearly four hundred thousand men were enrolled as soldiers, but of course the great majority were untrained and unreliable, noisily patriotic, but little better than a mob clamoring through the streets. General Trochu had only eighty thousand regular troops on whom he felt he could rely.

It was on September 18 that the Prussians first appeared before the desperate city. They made no attempt at an assault, but extending their lines around the walls and forts, settled down to the most stupendous siege of modern times. They were less numerous than the French troops, but they were a thoroughly disciplined army and were everywhere successful in the little preliminary skirmishes by which they established themselves.

At first the Parisians found their greatest trial was the being shut out from all news of the outside world. They organized a balloon service, and pressed carrier pigeons into use. Early in October, the fiery Gambetta escaped from the city in one of these balloons, and establishing himself at Tours soon perfected an efficient organization extending over all the country. His glowing speeches thrilled his countrymen to action, and outside of Paris he became the land's Dictator.

There was no longer any question of apathy among the provinces. If Paris would really fight, they would not be behind her in heroism. France responded as one man to Gambetta's appeals. At one time he had probably a million and a half of volunteers under arms. But alas, armed men are not armies! These raw recruits, undrilled, lacking proper weapons, half starved, and as time went on, half naked, proved no match for the German troops. There were armies of the North, armies of the South, and of the West, attacking the invaders furiously all over France. But the brave peasants sacrificed their lives in vain. They met only repeated defeats. Not one genuine French victory brightens the record of this disastrous and one-sided war.

Most notable perhaps of these feeble yet glorious armies, was one gathered

on the Loire and placed under the command of General de Palladines. A plan was formed for him to advance toward Paris from the south, while the Parisians were to make a sortie to meet him; and at the same time Marshal Bazaine was to break out of Metz, and threaten the German rear.

Bazaine, however, instead of liberating his enormous army, surrendered it bodily (October 29). Two hundred thousand troops, who at Gravelotte had proved themselves worthy of better things, were yielded, without further effort, to a foe not greatly outnumbering them. The case is without a parallel in history! After the war Bazaine was tried as a traitor. He pleaded that his provisions were exhausted, that a battle would have meant only useless sacrifice of life, and above all that he was a servant of the Emperor, that no legal government had superseded Napoleon, and hence he knew not what or whom to fight for. "There was still France" was the noble answer of the Duke D'Aumale; and the court judges condemned Bazaine to death. His sentence was, however, reduced to imprisonment, and he afterward escaped.

His surrender of Metz prostrated the last hopes of Frenchmen. It brought a long succession of evil consequences in its train. All during the siege of Paris, one of the most serious difficulties of the provisional government was the controlling of the lower classes of the populace. The majority of these were "Red Republicans" or anarchists; and their leaders, hoping to seize upon power for themselves, took advantage of every fresh disaster to rouse the ignorant multitude to tumult.

The news of Bazaine's surrender stirred the Red Republicans to indiscriminate fury. A mob assailed the Government for the National Defense, and threatened its leaders with instant death. Favre and the others sat calmly in their seats awaiting the inevitable. Some one showed General Trochu a way of escape, but he declined it, saying, "Friend, a soldier dies at his post of duty." Word of the perilous position of the government finally reached the regular troops; and they hastened to their chief's defense and suppressed the tumult.

Its consequences they could not suppress. Negotiations for peace with Germany had been once more under way; but at news of the rioting in Paris, Bismarck broke them off, on the old plea that here was yet another government, and he knew not with which to deal. Doubtless he felt that, if the jarring factions meant to destroy each other, he could make better terms with the exhausted remnant.

Another evil which sprang from the disaster at Metz, was that it left free the huge German army there, and these troops hastened to reinforce their brethren before Paris, who were in urgent need of help. The French army of the Loire under General de Palladines had performed its part in the general

plan, by attacking the invaders from the south. At the same time the Parisians sallied out upon them repeatedly, in force. There was severe fighting all through November.

The arrival of the second German army upon the scene made the struggle hopeless, yet it was persistently maintained. A body of fifty thousand troops under General Ducrot fought their way out from Paris as far as Champigny on the further shore of the river Marne. They had three days of sickening carnage, during which more Frenchmen fell than the armies of Napoleon III. had lost at Worth or Gravelotte. The besiegers also lost heavily. But the army of the Loire was defeated and scattered; so Ducrot and his men fell back upon Paris to await the end.

The defenses of the metropolis were strong,—impregnable her newspapers had once boasted; and the most difficult problem of the sorely harassed government became the feeding of the vast multitude within the walls. These soon stooped to mule meat, next to fancy foods from their zoological gardens, antelope steak and elephant trunk, and then to dogs and cats, and even vermin. The suffering became intense. "Poor little babies," says one who was among them, "died like flies." The German engineers pushed their lines of entrenchments ever nearer to the doomed city. Shells began to fall upon its houses; and a regular bombardment opened, which could result only in the capital's complete destruction.

Desperate sallies were made again and again all through January, but never with more than momentary success. At last the Government for the National Defense gave up in despair. There seemed no longer any hope for Paris, or for France. Favre was again commissioned to confer with Bismarck, and to secure the best terms he could for the surrender of the city. The siege came to an end January 29, 1871.

One of the arrangements of the capitulation was that there should be a truce long enough to permit the election of a free French Assembly, which could with some show of legal authority negotiate a final peace, whose terms would thus become binding upon all France. The truce did not, however, include the last and only remaining one of those pathetic "armies of the provinces" which the genius of Gambetta had raised. This force under General Bourbaki and the Italian hero Garibaldi was struggling against the Germans in eastern France, trying to get around their armies and invade Germany itself.

The effort failed. The weather was intensely cold, and Bourbaki's half-naked troops suffered all the tortures of freezing and starvation. They were half surrounded, their leader shot himself, and finally the perishing remnant of the men were compelled to retreat into Switzerland. There, as they had in-

vaded a neutral country, they were disarmed—probably much to their own relief—and the active operations of the war came to an end (February 1, 1871).

Meanwhile the Assembly for which the capitulation of Paris had provided, was elected. It met in February, chose Thiers as its President, and deputed him to settle terms of peace with Bismarck. Favre assisted him. It was a terrible trial to both of these patriots thus to aid in tearing apart their beloved country, and Thiers, a man of over seventy, broke down more than once in the course of the long negotiations.

Considering how complete had been Germany's victory, the final terms seem to an outsider not over severe, though of course bitterly humiliating to the proud Frenchmen. Alsace, which had been French for two hundred years, whose people spoke French and were devoted to the country, was given up to Germany. So was about one-fifth of Lorraine; and an enormous money payment, about a billion dollars, was to be made to the victors as quickly as possible. Until the money was delivered, the French fortresses were to remain in the hands of German troops.

The treaty was laid before the Assembly and finally accepted, March 1, 1871. On that same day thirty-thousand German troops were paraded through the streets of Paris, as a visible sign of her surrender and captivity. Then they withdrew, and the war was at an end.



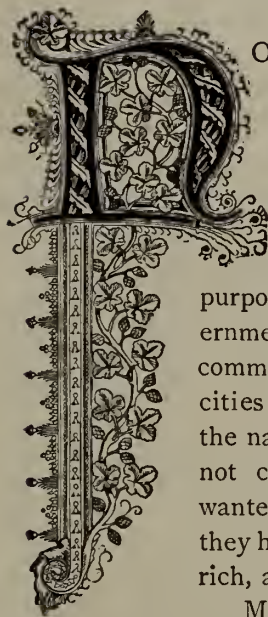
A SORTIE FROM PARIS



FRENCH TROOPS SHOOTING THE CAPTURED COMMUNISTS

Chapter C

MODERN FRANCE



O sooner had the German troops departed from humiliated Paris, than a new and even worse calamity descended upon that unhappy city. During the siege the Government for the National Defense had found constant trouble with the lowest class of citizens. We have seen how these "Red Republicans" stood ready to take advantage of every disaster to attempt an uprising. Their purpose was to establish a "commune," which means a government of the city by its own local officers, elected by the community. This is the system employed in all our American cities; but in France local officials are usually appointed by the national government. The Paris communists, however, did not confine their desires to this change of system. They wanted their own city commune to rule the rest of France; and they had vague ideas of redistributing property, plundering the rich, and other schemes even more anarchistic.

Many of the Paris militia had been recruited from the lowest orders. The withdrawal of the German troops left these men with arms in their hands. Some of them were earnest fanatics, some mere vagabonds unwilling to abandon lazy parading, for honest hard labor. Both classes uniting, declared for a "commune," and threw off all allegiance to the newly elected Assembly. The rebels seized the military stores of the capital, and arrested and shot two of their generals who attempted to restore order.

Paris was in wild uproar. Such troops as remained faithful to the Assem-

bly were hastily withdrawn from the city, which was left completely at the mercy of the communists. They barricaded the streets, and compelled all citizens to join them on pain of death. Prisoners were shot.

Next the fanatics began destroying all the objects of art and beautiful buildings in the city, their reason being that these had been gathered or erected by their hated tyrants, the "kings." Every scoundrel in Paris joined eagerly in the work, and took advantage of its opportunity for plunder. The great column erected by Napoleon I. and surmounted by his statue was pulled down; President Thiers's house was sacked; destruction ran riot everywhere.

Thiers and his government hurried troops against the rebels, and the soldiers, enraged at the injury done their beloved city, showed no mercy to its ravagers. The frenzied struggle lasted over two months. Fresh troops, released from their German prisons, came constantly forward to help crush the communists. These, despairing at last, became like utter maniacs, and sought to wipe out of existence the city they could not retain. They set it on fire and fought amid the flames. They shot down the churchmen, who had stayed among them preaching charity.

When at last the insurgents were driven from the barricades most of them fled, like the murderers and cowards they were. The conflagration was checked, and the remnant of the communists thrown into prison. Several thousand were executed, and, it is to be feared, many of the innocent among the guilty. Probably in all, thirty thousand Frenchmen perished because of this bloody uprising (March-May, 1871).

Its suppression gave the Assembly and President Thiers time to turn their attention to the political situation. This was bewildering enough. Never was republic launched under such doubtful conditions, or by such hesitant and lukewarm officials.

All Frenchmen were alike loyal to France; but the republican ideal of government is by no means so highly respected in Europe as among ourselves. The National Assembly had, as we have seen, been elected simply to arrange the peace with Germany. Now the chiefs of the Republic, Gambetta, Favre, and their friends, had been mainly instrumental in prolonging the war. Gambetta, indeed, protested against the peace to the very last. Yet it was peace that the vast majority of exhausted and despairing Frenchmen wanted. Peace at any price! Hence many of the fire-breathing leaders of the Republic were passed over in the elections, and men more cautious and conservative were chosen for the Assembly in their stead. When that body met, it soon discovered that a majority of its members did not favor a republic at all, but actually desired to restore some sort of monarchy.

Their first business, however, was to arrange the peace; and the Republic

being actually in existence, they named the conservative M. Thiers for its President, one reason for their choice being that he was himself a pronounced Monarchist. So here was the poor Republic being both launched and officered by men who had no faith in it, men who wished it dead.

The horrors of the Commune served naturally to strengthen the monarchial tendency of the Assembly. President Thiers, however, having accepted the leadership of a republic, considered himself bound in honor to uphold that form of government; and gradually he became convinced that moderate republican institutions were really best suited to the needs of France, and were desired by most of her citizens.

Public sentiment was also shown plainly in the individual elections, caused by vacancies in the Assembly. There was a steady increase of votes for Republican candidates. It became evident that while a majority of France had wanted peace most of all, they wanted the Republic also. Hence Gambetta and his followers insisted that the Assembly must disband itself, that having ratified the peace, it had done all its electors authorized.

The Monarchists, however, had no intention of abandoning their temporary advantage. They insisted that they represented the people in everything and could legally create whatever form of government they thought best. The whole machinery of law and order was in their hands, and the Republicans perforce submitted. Impossible and absurd as the situation must appear to American eyes, the only thing that prevented the Monarchists from declaring France a kingdom, was their disagreement as to who should be its king.

A few wished to restore the Bonapartes; the majority favored the Orleanists, that is, the descendants of King Louis Philippe, represented by his grandson the Count of Paris; while still another faction proposed to undo all that had been done in the past forty years, and bring back the ancient Bourbons in the person of the Count of Chambord, the grandson of Charles X.

The three parties seemed very near to uniting. The Bonapartists were at first few and unimportant. The Bourbon Count of Chambord was the last of his race. He was an old man, and his cousins, the Orleanists, were his natural heirs. Accordingly they offered to abandon their immediate claims in his favor. Had Chambord but said the word, he might have been the constitutional king of France.

One cannot but admire the grim Bourbon obstinacy with which he turned his back upon the opportunity. He would accept the throne, he declared, only if it were restored to him as being his by divine right; there should be no constitution, except such as he might choose out of his generosity to confer upon his subjects; and the tricolor of the nation must be abandoned for the ancient white flag of the Bourbons.

Such an absurd return to mediævalism was of course impossible in the closing years of the nineteenth century. The Orleanists flatly refused to elect Chambord on such terms; and even the Count's own followers entreated him to abandon the impossible past, for a practical present. But the old man was obdurate; and so the "Legitimists," as his supporters called themselves, saw no course open except to await his death, and then unite with the Orleanists.

The apparent object of all the Monarchists, therefore, became to tide over the time until this happy or unhappy event; and they joined in voting Thiers, now a determined Republican, out of the presidency (May, 1873), and electing in his place one of their own number, Marshal MacMahon, the most distinguished soldier of France.

On M. Thiers his grateful countrymen have since conferred the rather oddly sounding title, "The Liberator of the Territory." This refers to what they count his greatest achievement. During his administration, and largely owing to his energetic efforts, the huge indemnity to Germany was entirely paid off, in a period shorter than any one had dared to hope. The last German soldier was withdrawn from France in September, 1873. Returning prosperity dawned upon the stricken land.

Meanwhile, the Monarchist Assembly refused to give the Republic any formal constitution. Indeed, it has none to this day. In order to have some sort of method whereby to carry on the government, they passed individual laws, regulating now one point of procedure, and now another. This uncertain state of affairs grew so unbearable that finally, after prolonged and exciting debates, the Assembly on January 30, 1875, voted by a majority of one to perpetuate the Republic. Then they arranged for a government by a President and two houses, a Senate and an Assembly, and at last voted themselves out of their unwelcome existence.

The government thus unwillingly framed is in the main the system still in force in France. Her Senators are elected for nine years, by a somewhat complicated procedure; her Assemblymen are chosen for four, by direct vote of the people; and her President for seven; but he is elected not by the people, but by the combined vote of Senate and Assembly. His position resembles that of the English King, in that he does not interfere directly in affairs himself, but appoints a prime-minister or *Premier* to act for him. This Premier is the responsible head of the government; and when the Assembly refuses to support him he resigns, and the President selects his successor. Thus there is permanency in the midst of change.

Marshal MacMahon continued at the head of the nation till 1879. By that time, the Republican majority in both Senate and Assembly had grown strong and confident; and his position as a monarchial president became so manifestly

impossible, that he resigned. The Republicans elected their leader, M. Grévy, to succeed him. There is a story that away back in 1830, when King Charles X. posted on the walls of Paris the regulations which led to his downfall, an excited student tore down a copy of the hated paper. A captain of the royal troops drove him away with a kick. The student, enraged, procured a musket and led a party of the successful rioters. In after years, that captain became President MacMahon, and the student was the man who now forced him out of office.

These leaders of the distracted early days of the Republic have all passed away. We approach the France of to-day. M. Thiers, leader of the moderate Republicans, died in 1877; M. Gambetta, chief of the radical or extreme Republicans, in 1882; the Count of Chambord, in 1883. He had lived long enough to bury the cause of monarchy with him in his grave. M. Grévy was elected to a second term as president; but having grown very old, resigned in 1887. He was followed by M. Sadi-Carnot, who was assassinated by an anarchist in 1894.

During the rule of both M. Grévy and M. Carnot, the government was widely accused of corruption. The vilest of charges were heaped against its chiefs. The successor of Carnot, M. Casimir-Perier, resigned in six months, sooner than endure the insults hurled at him by partisan antipathy. The next president, M. Faure, died in 1899, exhausted and, his friends declared, broken-hearted by the acrimonies of political life. Under his rule occurred the notorious Dreyfus exposé, which revealed a horrifying state of corruption among high officials of the French army, and almost destroyed the faith of the people in that branch of their government.

After M. Faure came M. Emile Loubet as president (1899-1906). In the first months of his rule, he was openly insulted and even assaulted by a monarchical mob, under leaders who seek to pose before the world as gentlemen. Outside of such annoyances as this, and the more serious question of official corruption, France has been very prosperous of recent years. Her great "world's fair" of 1900 showed her vast natural resources and the energy and intelligence of her people. It is upon these that she relies for maintaining her industrial prominence in the future.

In 1906 M. Armand Fallières was elected president of the republic, and M. Clemenceau became prime-minister. The twelve years of agitation over the "Dreyfus affair" were ended by the complete vindication of Captain Dreyfus, and his restoration in the army, while his chief military defender, M. Picquart, became Minister of War. When, in 1908, the body of the great champion of Dreyfus, the novelist Zola, was placed in the Paris Pantheon, the occasion was made a national celebration.

In European politics France has now been for several years united with England and Russia in what she calls the "Triple Entente" or triple understanding, as an offset to the "Triple Alliance" between Germany, Austria and Italy.

France has joined the other European powers in seeking colonies, or rather territories on foreign shores, to give her room for expansion. She began this career of colonization in 1830, when Charles X. assumed a protectorate over Algeria. This was soon extended over Tripoli also. In Asia, France has assumed control of most of Indo-China. In South Africa, she, in 1896, completed the conquest of Madagascar. In 1898 she quarreled with England over their relative rights to the upper regions of the Nile; and the two powers came to an amicable agreement as to their respective "spheres of influence" in northern Africa. By this notable arrangement of 1898 France withdrew entirely from the Nile valley, and England acknowledged French authority over most of central and northwestern Africa, including the little-known depths of the Sahara desert. French ingenuity has since started a plan to flood this vast desert and make of it a sea whose border lands might then become among the richest and most delightful in the world.

This assumption of French authority over northwestern Africa has led her of recent years into difficulties with both Germany and Spain. Germany in particular made repeated claims in Morocco, the chief African state of the region. The Franco-German dispute reached a climax in 1911, when England threatened to interfere in aid of her French allies. An agreement was finally reached by which France ceded to Germany some central African territory and was accepted as the official "protector" of Morocco. She thus acquires practically all of northwestern Africa.

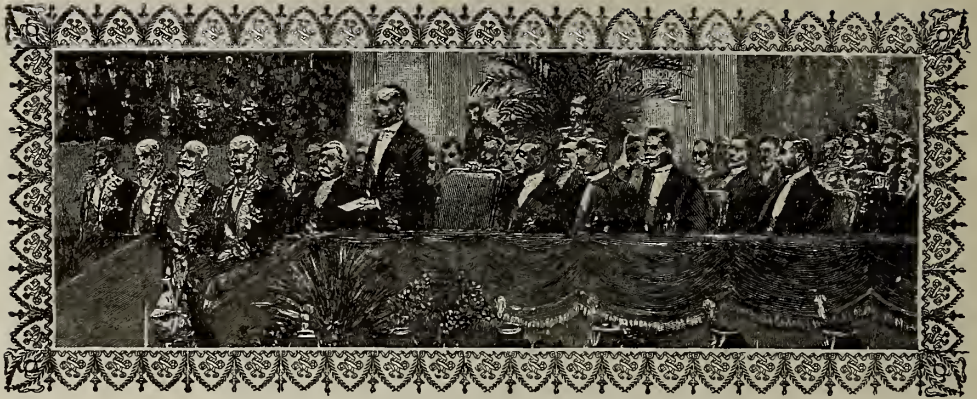
If we turn now to look at internal conditions in France during recent years we find these less satisfactory. Since 1899 the Radicals have been in power. To be "radical" in France means to desire a more democratic or even socialistic government, under a full and formally drawn-up constitution. It unfortunately means also to be opposed more or less to Catholicism, which is still the religion of the majority of Frenchmen. The first radical prime-minister, M. Waldeck-Rousseau, deliberately attacked the Catholic Church, claiming that such a course was necessary for the preservation of the Republic. Laws passed by him in 1901 resulted, during July and August of 1902, in the breaking up of various Catholic schools and the turning of the nuns out of their establishments. This caused great disorder and even rioting, the populace upholding the cause of the persecuted women and priests and crying out vehemently for "liberté." The further Law of Separation which took effect in 1906 deprived the Church of all government financial support and laid such serious restrictions

upon the priesthood as resulted in a Catholic policy of "passive resistance" which still continues.

The laboring masses of France are even more discontented with the government, and even seem on the very edge of revolt. They claim that the laws favor the middle classes in everything and keep the laborers poor. Many and bitter strikes have been the result. In France, May first is called "Laborers' Day." But instead of being made a happy holiday it is inaugurated almost every year with rioting and strikes. In 1906 the labor leaders proclaimed widely that May first was to usher in a revolution which was to make France truly a republic of the masses, not of the rich "shopkeepers." But the government stationed troops at each suspected point and the laborers failed to rise. In 1910 the government employees on the railroads struck throughout France. Thus the government itself has to face labor troubles in its own departments.

Perhaps the most serious open revolt is that by which the wine-growing provinces have now been disturbed for several years. In 1907 more than a million peasants gathered in mobs throughout southern France insisting that laws must be passed preventing other wines from being sold as their expensive "champagnes." These mobs did widespread damage and were only dispersed by armed regiments after considerable loss of life. The government has tried to please everybody by passing laws about the labelling of all wines. But the interests of each province differ from those of the others, and they are clamorous against one another, demanding different laws and even raiding one another's territory and destroying vineyards.

Just of late a firmer government seems meeting these difficulties successfully. The French ministry of 1911 was driven from power because of general dissatisfaction that it had not been firmer against Germany in the Morocco trouble. Thus in January, 1912, M. Raymond Poincaré was made prime-minister. He carried the nation so successfully through the year, that in 1913 he was elected President of the Republic. Under Poincaré's strong guidance the future of France looks promising. Though indeed some say he has resigned the substance for the shadow, that in France the president has become little more than a figurehead and that the real power rests with the prime-minister, there can, however, be no question that for the moment President Poincaré controls the destinies of France.



PRESIDENT LOUBET OPENING THE PARIS EXPOSITION OF 1900

CHRONOLOGY OF FRANCE.



C. 1600 (?)—First entrance of the Gauls into France. 1200 (?)—Phoenician colonies established in Gaul. 600—Foundation of Marseilles by the Greek, Euxenes. 397—Capture of Rome by Brennus. 225—Rome defeats the Gauls at Cape Telamon. 170—The last of the Gauls abandon Italy. 154—The Romans invade Gaul. 122—Defeat of Bituit by the Romans and establishment of the Gallic "Province." 113-102—Devastation of Gaul by the Cimbri and Teutones. 58—Cæsar defeats the Helvetians and Ariovistus. 52

—Uprising and defeat of Vercingetorix, Gaul subject to the Romans.

A.D. 150 (?)—Introduction of Christianity into Gaul. 177

—Christian persecution at Lyons. 250—Martyrdom of St. Denis.

312—Constantine, a Gaul, makes the Roman world Christian.

360—St. Martin completes the conversion of Gaul; Julian drives out the invading Franks and rebuilds Paris. 406—Gaul pillaged by the Vandals; 412 by the Goths; 451 by the Huns, the battle of Chalons. 481—Clovis becomes king of the Salian Franks.

486—He defeats the remnant of the Romans. 496—He adopts

Christianity. 687—Pepin and the Austrasians defeat the West-Franks. 715

—The Mahometans invade France. 732—Charles Martel defeats them at

Tours. 752—Pepin le Bref crowned King of the Franks. 759—He takes

Narbonne from the Mahometans and drives them out of France. 800—

Charlemagne crowned Emperor at Rome.

840—Louis the Pious divides his Empire among his sons, Charles the

Bald receiving France. 841—Destructive battle of Fontenoy. 843—Treaty of Verdun brings peace among the sons of Louis and finally establishes Charles the Bald as King of France; French history proper begins here. 884—Rolf and his Norsemen capture Rouen. 885—Eudes repulses them from Paris. 911—Rolf becomes Duke of Normandy and a subject of France. 987—Hugh Capet ousts the Carolingians and becomes the founder of the Capetian line of monarchs. 1066—William of Normandy conquers England. 1098—The Council of Clermont starts the Crusades. 1096—The first Crusade. 1099—Capture of Jerusalem. 1119—Abelard teaches in Paris. 1135—Communes established under Louis VI. 1137—Wedding of Louis VII. to Eleanor of Aquitaine unites their domains. 1147—The second Crusade. 1152—Aquitaine goes to Henry of Anjou, afterward King of England. 1189—The third Crusade. 1191—Philip Augustus makes war on Richard of England. 1204—Philip seizes the French provinces of John of England, conquers Chateau Gaillard. 1214—Philip wins the battle of Bouvines by help of the common people. 1208–1229—Crusades against the Albigenses. 1242—Louis IX. wins the battle of Taillebourg. 1249—He leads the seventh Crusade, captures Damietta, and is made prisoner. 1270—His death ends the Crusades.

1282—The Sicilian Vespers. 1302—Defeat of the French chivalry at Courtrai. 1307—The Pope establishes his court at Avignon in France. 1308—Suppression of the Templars. 1316—Philip V. proclaims the Salic law. 1337—Beginning of the Hundred Years' War. 1346—The defeat of Crecy. 1347—Calais lost to the English. 1348—The Black Death. 1349—Dauphiny added to France. 1356—King John made prisoner at Poitiers. 1358—Revolt of the Parisians under Marcel; uprising of the Jacquerie. 1360—Peace of Bretigny gives half France to the English. 1366—Du Guesclin gets the Free Companies under his control and defeats the English armies. 1380—Du Guesclin dies. 1392—Madness of Charles VI. 1415—Henry V. of England renews the war; battle of Agincourt; civil strife of the Orleanists and Burgundians. 1419—Assassination of John of Burgundy; his son joins the English. 1420—Henry of England in Paris; declared heir to the French throne. 1422—He dies; the followers of Charles VII. continue the struggle in the south. 1429—Orleans rescued by Joan of Arc; Charles crowned at Rheims. 1431—Execution of Joan. 1435—Burgundy returns to the French alliance. 1436—De Richemont recaptures Paris. 1449—He drives the English from Normandy. 1453—The battle of Chatillon ends the Hundred Years' War.

1465—"League of the Public Good" against Louis XI. 1477—Louis XI. seizes much of Burgundy on the death of Charles the Bald. 1491—Brittany

joined to France by the marriage of Charles VIII. to its heiress. 1494—Charles VIII. begins the Italian wars. 1515-47—Reign of Francis I. 1515—With Bayard he wins the battle of Marignano. 1519—He tries for the crown of Germany. 1520—Display of the "Field of the Cloth of Gold." 1525—Francis captured at Pavia. 1530—He begins the persecution of Protestants. 1552—Henry II. invades Germany and seizes Metz; its successful defense against Charles V. of Germany. 1557—Coligny defends St. Quentin. 1558—Calais captured from the English.

1562—The Massacre of Vassy begins the Huguenot wars. 1570—Henry of Navarre becomes head of the Huguenots. 1572—Massacre of St. Bartholomew. 1584—Henry III. offered the Dutch throne. 1587—War of the three Henrys; Henry III. driven from Paris. 1588—He has Henry of Guise assassinated; Catharine di Medici dies. 1589—Henry III. assassinated; Henry IV. wins the Battle of Arques. 1590—He is victorious at Ivry; besieges Paris. 1593—The King becomes Catholic and is universally acknowledged. 1598—The Edict of Nantes grants religious toleration. 1610—Assassination of Henry IV.

1616—Richelieu enters the councils of Concini and Mary di Medici. 1617—Fall of Concini. 1624—Richelieu becomes prime-minister. 1628—Capture of La Rochelle. 1630—The "Day of Dupes." 1634—Richelieu organizes the French Academy. 1642—Death of Richelieu; ministry of Mazarin. 1643—The Spaniards crushed by Condé at Rocroi. 1648-53—War of the Fronde. 1648—The Peace of Westphalia leaves France the foremost state of Europe.

1661—Death of Mazarin; Louis XIV. assumes all power. 1667—He seizes Flanders from Spain. 1672—He attacks Holland; victories of Condé and Turenne; Du Quesne makes France supreme in the Mediterranean. 1678—Peace of Nymwegen; height of Louis's power. 1681—Louis seizes Strasbourg. 1685—He revokes the Edict of Nantes. 1688-97—European war against France, victories of Marshal Luxemburg and Admiral Tourville. 1700—Philip of France offered the Spanish crown. 1701-13—War of the Spanish Succession; the French defeated by Marlborough and Eugene. 1708—Louis XIV. sues for peace and appeals to the French people. 1709—Battle of Malplaquet. 1713—Peace of Utrecht. 1715—Death of Louis XIV.

1715-23—Regency of the Duke of Orleans. 1716-20—The "Mississippi Bubble." 1726-43—Ministry of Cardinal Fleury. 1741—France grasps at the dominions of Maria Theresa. 1744—Serious illness of Louis XV. brings sorrow to France. 1745—Battle of Fontenoy. 1748-64—Rule of Madame Pompadour. 1754—Beginning of the war with England in America. 1757—The French defeated by the Prussians at Rossbach. 1759—Battle of Quebec

loses Canada for the French. 1763—Peace of Paris surrenders Canada and India to England. 1768—Corsica joined to France. 1774—Death of Louis XV. 1776—Prime-minister Turgot attempts financial reforms and is dismissed. 1778—Voltaire's triumphant entry into Paris; his death. 1778-83—France lends aid to America in her war of Independence. 1787—Assembly of the Notables.

1789—Meeting of the "States-General"; the Third Estate led by Mirabeau constitutes itself a "National Assembly"; the storming of the Bastille (July 14); the royalist banquet at Versailles; the women march to Versailles, and compel the King and Queen to return with them to Paris (October 6). 1790—The Assembly makes France a Constitutional Monarchy. 1791—Death of Mirabeau; flight of the King and his arrest at Vincennes; disbandment of the first Assembly and election of the "Legislative Assembly." 1792—War declared against Austria; Prussia declares war and invades France; Louis XVI. and his family imprisoned; "aristocrats" arrested; the "September Massacres"; Prussians defeated at Valmy; a third Assembly declares France a Republic (September 21); Austrians defeated at Jemmapes. 1793—Execution of Louis XVI. (January 21); war with England and Holland; civil war in La Vendée; the Girondists arrested as traitors (June 2); the "Reign of Terror"; revolt of southern France; death of Marat; Toulon surrendered to the English; Lyons recaptured and punished; Execution of the Queen, of Bailly, of the Girondists, of Lavoisier, etc. Toulon recaptured by Bonaparte; the Vendéans crushed. 1794—Execution of Danton; and of Robespierre (July 28), which ends the "Terror."

1795—Pichegru conquers Holland; Prussia and Spain sue for peace; the last uprising of the Parisian mob crushed by General Bonaparte (October 5); a "Directorate" of five men established. 1796—Bonaparte's campaign in Italy; battles of Lodi and Arcole. 1797—Hoche defeats the Germans and Austrians; Bonaparte completes the conquest of Italy and rearranges its states on French lines; invades Austria; treaty of Campo Formio. 1798—Bonaparte's expedition to Egypt; battle of the Pyramids; battle of the Nile. 1799—He returns to France, overthrows the Directorate (November 9), and makes himself First Consul. 1800—He crosses the Alps and crushes the Austrians in Italy by the battle of Marengo; Moreau defeats them at Hohenlinden. 1804—Execution of the Duc D'Enghien.

1804—Napoleon crowned Emperor of the French. 1805—He overwhelms the Austrians at Ulm; defeats them and the Russians at Austerlitz; captures Vienna. 1806—He establishes the "Confederation of the Rhine" in Germany; crushes the Prussians at Jena. 1807—Defeats the Russians at Friedland; makes peace with the Czar; forbids commerce with England. 1809—The Austrians re-

volt against him and are defeated; he divorces Josephine. 1810—Marriage of Napoleon to Maria Louise. 1811—Birth of his son, Napoleon II. 1812—The Russian war results in the destruction of the French army. 1813—Revolt of the Prussians, battle of Leipzig. 1814—The Allies enter France; capture Paris; Napoleon abdicates in favor of his son; exiled to Elba; Louis XVIII. placed on the throne. 1815—Napoleon returns; the Hundred Days; Waterloo; Napoleon exiled to St. Helena.

1816—The "White Terror." 1821—Death of Napoleon. 1827—Charles X. disbands the National Guard. 1827-30—War with Algiers. 1830—The "Revolution of July" forces Charles X. to flee; a Constitutional Monarchy formed under Louis Philippe. 1834—Death of Lafayette. 1836—Louis Napoleon attempts a revolt at Strasburg. 1838—Death of Talleyrand. 1840—Louis Napoleon again invades France and is imprisoned. 1840—Remains of Napoleon I. brought back to France with great honor. 1848—Revolution; Louis Philippe abdicates and a Republic is declared under Lamartine; revolt of the extreme Republicans suppressed by Cavaignac; Louis Napoleon elected President. 1849—A French army suppresses the Republic at Rome.

1851—(December 2) Napoleon's *coup d'état*; he is elected President for ten years by universal suffrage. 1852—He is elected Emperor as Napoleon III. 1853—He weds Eugénie de Montijo. 1854-6—Crimean war. 1859—Austrian war; battles of Magenta and Solferino. 1860—Savoy and Nice added to France; Napoleon III. at the height of his power, the "Arbiter of Europe." 1862—Part of Indo-China ceded to France. 1867—An extension of frontier demanded from Prussia and refused. 1869—Opening of the Suez Canal.

1870—Trouble with Prussia over the Spanish succession; war declared against Prussia (July 17); defeat of MacMahon at Worth; of Bazaine at Gravelotte; surrender of Napoleon III. at Sedan; France declared a Republic (September 4); Paris besieged; Gambetta organized the French provinces in unsuccessful resistance. 1871—Paris capitulates; Thiers arranges the peace terms; an Assembly elected to confirm the peace; Thiers made President; the Germans parade through Paris (March 1); the Communists seize Paris and partly destroy it. 1873—Death of Napoleon III.; the Count of Chambord refuses to be king except on his own terms; Thiers declares for a permanent Republic and is voted out of office, Marshal MacMahon becomes President; the last of the German indemnity is paid and the German troops leave France.

1883—Death of the Count de Chambord unites all the Bourbon claims to the French throne in the Orleanists. 1889—Much discontent and Boulangist excitement; quelled by the exile of General Boulanger. 1894-6—Madagascar

subjugated. 1894—President Carnot assassinated. 1895—President Casimir-Perier resigns. 1896—Beginning of the Dreyfus agitation. 1898—France, by treaty with England, assumes sovereignty over most of north-western Africa. 1899—Death of President Faure; M. Loubet elected President; he is violently assaulted; the re-trial of Dreyfus; uprisings of the Anti-Semites, Boulangists, etc. 1900—Great international exposition at Paris. 1902—The “radical” government under M. Combes begins closing the Catholic schools. 1906—Dreyfus finally rehabilitated; the Law of Separation enforced against the churches. 1907—The Revolt of the Midi. 1909—M. Clemenceau loses the prime-ministry through a burst of anger. 1910—Severe floods deluge Paris and the whole Seine valley and cause great loss and suffering. 1911—A French protectorate established over Morocco after a quarrel with Germany. 1911-12—Motor bandits terrify Paris, and are captured after withstanding a regular siege. 1913—M. Raymond Poincaré elected president.

RULERS OF FRANCE

MEROVINGIAN KINGS.

A.D.

481—Clovis. (He first assumed the title, King of Francia.)

* * * *

558—Clotar I.

* * * *

613—Clotar II.

628—Dagobert.

* * * *

MAYORS OF THE PALACE.

687—Pepin of Herestál.

714—Charles Martel.

741—Pepin le Bref.

CARLOVINGIAN KINGS.

752—Pepin le Bref.

768—Charles and Carloman.

771—Charlemagne.

CARLOVINGIAN EMPERORS.

800—Charlemagne.

814—Louis the Pious.

CARLOVINGIAN KINGS.

(Ruling in France, but sometimes nominally subject to an Emperor in Italy or Germany.)

840—Charles II., the Bald.

877—Louis II., the Stammerer.

879—Louis III. and Carloman II.

884—Charles III., the Simple.

(This King was unacknowledged during much of his reign and the four following Kings ruled meanwhile over part of France.)

884—Charles the Fat.

887-896—Eudes, Count of Paris.

922—*Robert, Count of Paris.*

923—*Rodolf, Duke of Burgundy.*

936—Louis IV., Outremer.

954—Lothair.

986—Louis V., the Indolent.

CAPETIAN KINGS.

987—Hugh Capet.

996—Robert the Pious.

1031—Henry I.

1060—Philip I., the Amorous.

1108—Louis VI., the Fat.

1137—Louis VII., the Young.

1180—Philip II., Augustus.

1223—Louis VIII., the Lion-hearted.

1226—Louis IX., St. Louis.

1270—Philip III., the Bold.

1285—Philip IV., the Fair.

1314—Louis X., the Quarrelsome.

1316—John I.

1316—Philip V., the Tall.

1322—Charles IV., the Fair.

VALOIS KINGS.

1328—Philip VI., the Fortunate.

1350—John II., the Good.

1364—Charles V., the Wise.

1380—Charles VI., the Well-Beloved.

1422—Charles VII., the Victorious.

1461—Louis XI.

1483—Charles VIII., the Affable.

VALOIS-ORLEANS KINGS.

1498—Louis XII., the Father of his People.

1515—Francis I.

1547—Henry II.

1559—Francis II.

1560—Charles IX.

1574—Henry III.

BOURBON KINGS.

1589—Henry IV., the Great.

1610—Louis XIII., the God-given.

1643—Louis XIV., the Great.

1715—Louis XV., the Well-Beloved.

1774—Louis XVI.

1793—Louis XVII. (*King in name only.*)

1795—Louis XVIII. (*In name only until 1814.*)

FIRST REPUBLIC.

1792—*The National Convention.*

1795—*The Directorate.*

1799—Napoleon Bonaparte, *First Consul.*

FIRST EMPIRE.

1804—Napoleon I.

1815—Napoleon II.

BOURBON KINGS.

1814—Louis XVIII.

1824—Charles X.

CONSTITUTIONAL KING.

1830—Louis Philippe.

SECOND REPUBLIC.

1848—Lamartine.

1848—Louis Napoleon Bonaparte.

SECOND EMPIRE.

1852—Napoleon III.

THIRD REPUBLIC.

1871—Thiers.

1873—MacMahon.

1879—Grévy.

1887—Sadi-Carnot.

1894—Casimir-Perier.

1895—Faure.

1899—Loubet.

1906—Fallières.

1913—Poincaré.



STORMING THE BASTILLE

PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY FOR FRANCE

Acre (ā'kēr <i>or</i> ah'kēr)	Bohemond (bō'hě-mōnd)
Agincourt (ă-zhăn-koor')	Bonaparte (bō'nă-part)
Albigenses (ăl-bĩ-jěn'sēz)	Bordeaux (bōr-dō')
Alesia (ă-lē'shĩ-ă)	Bouillon (boo'yōng)
Algiers (ăl-jērz')	Boulangier (boo'lōn-zhā')
Alsace (ahl'sahs')	Boulogne (boo-lon')
Angouleme (ōng-goo-lām')	Bourbon (boor'-bōn)
Anjou (ōn-zhoo')	Bourges (boorz)
Antioch (ăn'tĩ-ōk)	Bouvines (boo'vēn)
Aquitaine (ăk-wē-tān')	Brennus (brēn'ūs)
Arcole (ahr-kō'-lā)	Bruges (brū'jēz)
Ariovistus (ā'rĩ-o-vĩs'tūs)	Cadoudal (kah-doo-dahl')
Arverni (ahr-věr'nĩ)	Caen (kōng)
Ascalon (ăs'kă-lōn)	Calais (kah-lā')
Austerlitz (ows'těr-lĩts)	Calvin (kăl'vĩn)
Bagaudæ (bă'-gō-dē)	Campo Formio (kahm'pō-fōr'mē-ō)
Bailly (bah'yē)	Capet (kă'pēt <i>or French</i> kah-pā')
Balue (bah-luē')	Carnot (kar-nō')
Bazaine (bah-zān')	Casimir-Perier (kah-zě-mēr' pā-rē-ă')
Bearn (bā-ahr')	Cavaignac (kah-vān-yahk')
Beauharnais (bō-ahr-nă')	Chalons (shah'lōng')
Beaujeu (bō-zhū')	Chambord (shōn-bōr')
Bernard (běr-nahrd')	Champagne (shām-pān' <i>or</i> shon-pahn')
Bituit (bĩt'ũ-it)	Charlemagne (shar'lě-mān)
Blenheim (blēn'ĩm)	Chateau Gaillard (shah-tō'-gah'yard)
Blois (blwah)	Chateauroux (shah-tō'-roo')

Chatillon (shah-tē-yǒng')
 Chouan (shoo-ǒng')
 Chramn (shrām)
 Clotar (klō'tǎr)
 Clovis (klō'vīs)
 Colbert (kōl-bār')
 Coligny (ko-lēn'-yē)
 Concini (kōn-chē'nē)
 Condé (kōn'dā)
 Condorcet (kōn-dōr'sā)
 Corday (kōr-dā)
 Corneille (kōr-nā'yě)
 Correus (cōr-rē'ūs)
 Corsica (kōr'sī-kā)
 Coup d'etat (koo-dā-tah')
 Courtrai (koo-r-trā')
 Crecy (krā-sē' or krēs'sī)
 D'Albret (dahl-brā')
 Damietta (dām-ī-ēt'-tǎ)
 Danton (dǎn'ton or dong-tōng')
 De Launay (dě-lō'nā')
 D'Enghien (dong-ghe-ahng')
 Denis (dě-nē')
 De Richemont (dě-rēsh'mōng)
 Dionysius (dī-ō-nīsh'ī-ūs)
 Domremy (dōng-rē-mē')
 Dorylæum (dōr-i-lē'ūm)
 Dreux (drě')
 Dreyfus (drī'fūs)
 Du Guesclín (duē-gā-klǎng')
 Dumouriez (duē-moo'rē-ā)
 Du Quesne (duē-kān')
 Elba (ěl'bǎ)
 Eponina (ēp-ō-nī'nǎ)
 Eudes (ūhd)
 Eugénie (ēh-zhā'nē)
 Euxenes (yūx'e-nēz)
 Faure (fōrr)
 Favre (fah'vr)
 Finisterre (fīn-īs-tārr')

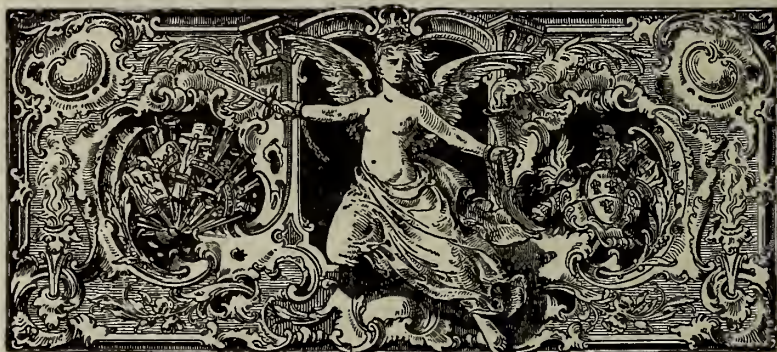
Fleury (flē'rē')
 Fontainailles (fōng-tān-r'yě)
 Fontainebleau (fōng'-tān-blō)
 Fornovo (for-nō-vō)
 Franche Comté (frōngsh-cōng-tǎ')
 Fronde (frōnd)
 Gambetta (gām-bēt'ǎ)
 Gergovia (jēr-gō'vī-ǎ)
 Girondist (zhē-rōn'dīst)
 Gisele (zhīs-el')
 Grévy (grā'vē)
 Guinegate (ghēn-gaht')
 Guise (gwēz)
 Gyptis (jīp'tīs)
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 Hincmar (hīnk'mar)
 Hoche (ōsh)
 Hohenlinden (hō'ēn-līn'dēn)
 Huguenot (hū'gē-nōt)
 Ivry (ēv'rē)
 Jacobin (zhǎ'-kō-bīn')
 Jacquerie (zhǎk'ē-rē)
 Jarnac (zhǎr-nahc')
 Jemmapes (zhā-mahp')
 Jena (jēn'-ǎ or yā'-nah)
 Jourdan (zhoor-dōng')
 Kleber (klā-bār')
 La Hogue (lah-hōg')
 Lamartine (lah-mahr-tēn')
 Lampagie (lām-pah-zhē)
 Languedoc (lōng'gē-dōc')
 Larochejaquelin (la-rōsh'-zhǎ'kē-līn)
 La Rochelle (lah-rō-shēll')
 Lavoisier (lah-vwah'-ze-ā')
 Leipzig (līp'sik)
 Lettres de cachet (lā'tr-dē-kah-shǎ)
 L'Hôpital (lō-pe-tahl')
 Ligny (līn'yě)
 Lodi (lō'dē)
 Loire (lwahr)

Lorraine (lŏr-rān')
 Loubet (loo-bā)
 Lutetia (lū-tē'shī-ă)
 Luxembourg (lŭks'ēm-bŭrg)
 Magenta (mah-jěn'tah)
 Maintenon (măng'tē-nōng)
 Malplaquet (mahl'plă-kā)
 Mameluke (mām'lŭke)
 Mansourah (mahn-soo'rah)
 Marchand (mar-shōng')
 Marengo (mă-rěn'gō)
 Marignano (mah-rěn-yah'nō)
 Marseilles (mahr-sālz *or* mahr-sā'ye)
 Mayenne (mah-yěn')
 Mazarin (măz-ă-rěn')
 Medici (mēd'ĕ-chē)
 Metz (mēts)
 Mirabeau (mīr'ă-bō)
 Molière (mō-le-air')
 Montesquieu (mŏn'tēs-kū')
 Montijo (mŏn-tē'hō)
 Montlheri (mŏnt-lă'rī)
 Morėau (mō-rō')
 Nantes (nănts *or* nōngt)
 Napoleon (nă-pō'lē-ŏn)
 Narbonne (nahr-bŏn')
 Navarre (nă-vahr')
 Nervii (nēr'vī-ī)
 Nesle (nāl)
 Ney (nā)
 Nice (nēs)
 Nymwegen (nīm-wā'gen)
 Oriflamme (ŏr'ī-flām)
 Oudenarde (ow'dĕn-ărd'ĕ)
 Patay (pah-tā')
 Pavia (pah-vĕ'ă)
 Peronne (pa-rŏn')
 Pichegru (pĕsh-gruĕ')
 Plantagenet (plăn-tăj'ĕ-nĕt)
 Plebiscite (plĕ-bē-sĕt')

Plessis les Tours (plā-sē'lā-toor')
 Poitiers (pwă'tē-ă')
 Pompadour (pōng-pah-door')
 Pothinus (pō-thī'nŭs)
 Priscillian (prī-sī'lī-ăn)
 Provence (prō-vōngs')
 Ptolemais (tŏl'ĕ-mă'is)
 Quatre Bras (kătr'-bră')
 Rabelais (rah-blă')
 Racine (rah-sĕn')
 Ramillies (ră'mĕ-yĕ')
 Ravailac (rah-vah-yahc')
 Reichstadt (rīkh'staht)
 Rheims (rēmz)
 Richelieu (rĕsh'ĕ-loo)
 Robespierre (rō-bĕs-pĕ-air')
 Rocroi (rŏc-roy *or* French rō-krwah')
 Roncesvalles (rŏn-sĕs-vă'l'lĕs)
 Rossbach (röss'-bahk)
 Rouen (roo-ōng')
 Rousillon (roo-sē-yōng')
 Rousseau (roo-sō')
 Saarbruck (sahr'bruĕk)
 Sacrovir (săc'rō-vīr)
 Sadi-Carnot (sah-dĕ-kahr-nō)
 Saint Helena (sĕnt-hĕ-lĕ'nă)
 Saxe (săks)
 Sedan (sĕ-dōng')
 Sluys (slois)
 Solferino (sŏl'fĕr-ĕ'nō)
 Strasbourg (străz'bŭrg *or* strahs'-boork)
 Suger (soo-zhă')
 Sully (sŭl'ī *or* suĕ-lĕ)
 Syagrius (sĕ-ă'grī-ŭs)
 Taillebourg (tī-yĕ-boorg')
 Talleyrand (tăl'ĕ-rănd)
 Testri (tăs'trĕ)
 Thiers (tĕ-air')
 Toulon (too-lŏn *or* too-lōng')

Toulouse (too-looz)
 Trafalgar (trăf-ăl-gahr')
 Treves (trēvz)
 Trochu (trō-shuē')
 Troyes (trwah)
 Tunis (tū'-nīs)
 Turenne (tū-rēn')
 Turgot (tuēr-gō)
 Utrecht (ū'trēkt)
 Valmy (vahl-mē)
 Valois (vahl-wah')
 Varennes (vah-rēn')

Vassy (văs'sē)
 Vauban (vō-bōng')
 Vendée (vōng'dā')
 Vercingetorix (vēr'sin-jēt'ō-rīks)
 Verdun (vēr'dūng')
 Versailles (vēr-sālz, *or* vair-sī'yě)
 Villars (vil'ārs)
 Voltaire (vōl-tair')
 Waifre (wā'fr)
 Waldeck (wahl'dēk *or* völdēk)
 Westphalia (wēst-fā'lī-ă)
 Worth (wür't *or* French vō-air')



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THE ITALIANS AND SPANIARDS

Michelangelo
Titian
Veronese
Corregio
Riva
Velasquez

THE GERMANS

Durer
Rembrandt
Rubens
Van Dyke
Kaulbach
Bendemann
Makart

THE FRENCH

David
Dore
Gerome
Cabanel
Bougereau
Tissot
Roche-grosse

THE ENGLISH

Hogarth
Turner
Martin
Alma-Tadema
Lord Leighton
Riviere
Hunt

THE AMERICANS AND OTHERS

West
Sargent
Abbey
Bridgman
Munkacsy
Piloty

and other masters too numerous to mention.

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